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PARENTAL KNOWLEDGE PROCESSES IN MEXICAN AMERICAN FAMILIES

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by
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ABSTRACT

To examine correlates of parental knowledge and sources of knowledge in Mexican American families, home and phone interviews were conducted with mothers, fathers, and their seventh-grade adolescents in 246 Mexican American families. Correlation and regression analyses were conducted separately for mothers and fathers and indicated that parent-adolescent relationship quality was associated with greater parental knowledge for both parents. Parent-adolescent relationship quality and parental acculturation were also associated with the use of different sources of knowledge. Few associations emerged linking sources of knowledge to daily parental knowledge. However, given the links between parental knowledge and adolescent outcomes demonstrated in previous research, these findings have implications for interventions aimed at improving the well-being of Mexican American adolescents.

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PARENTAL KNOWLEDGE PROCESSES IN MEXICAN AMERICAN FAMILIES

INTRODUCTION

Researchers have extensively studied processes surrounding parental knowledge of adolescents' daily experiences, including how much parents know about their children's experiences (Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Stattin & Kerr, 2000), how they come to know about their children's experiences (Crouter, Bumpus, Davis, & McHale, 2005; Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Waizenhofer, Buchanan, & Jackson-Newsom, 2004), and the implications of their knowledge for youth well-being (Crouter & Head, 2002; Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Waizenhofer et al., 2004). This body of research has shown that levels of parental knowledge and sources of knowledge differ for mothers versus fathers (Waizenhofer et al., 2004) as well as for parents of daughters versus sons (Crouter, Helms-Erikson, Updegraff, & McHale, 1999) and has also suggested the importance of parental knowledge and certain sources of knowledge for adolescent well-being (Crouter & Head, 2002; Crouter et al., 2005; Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Waizenhofer et al., 2004). Our understanding of parental knowledge processes is limited, however, because most studies have been conducted with European and European American samples. This study aims to expand our understanding of parental knowledge processes by studying a Mexican American sample.

Mexican Americans are among the largest and fastest growing immigrant and ethnic minority populations in the U.S. (Ramirez & Patricia de la Cruz, 2002). It is estimated that by the year 2050, nearly one-third of the population under age 19 in the United States will be Latino (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2001). Mexican Americans have been immigrating to the U.S. for decades; some Mexican American families have been in the U.S. for multiple generations, whereas other families have arrived more recently. As families who have

been here longer will tend to be more assimilated into American culture than those who are more recent immigrants, a great deal of variability exists within the population of Mexican American families. As such, level of acculturation is an important source of variability within Mexican American families and plays an important role in parent-adolescent relations and adolescent psychosocial functioning (Fuligni, 1998; Updegraff et al., 2006).

In addition to the growth and variability of this population, studies have shown Mexican American youth to be at increased risk for a variety of problems (De La Rosa et al., 2005; Johnston et al., 2001; Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 2001; Plunkett & Bámaca-Gomez, 2003). In the academic domain, Mexican American youth are at risk for academic underachievement and school drop out (Alva, 1995; Okagaki & Frensch, 1998). In the mental health domain, Roberts and Sobhan (1992) found that Mexican American adolescents had the highest rates of depression compared to Anglo and African American youth. Related to substance abuse, Latinos have the highest alcohol and illicit drug use of any ethnic group in the U.S. (De La Rosa et al., 2005), and Hispanic American youth demonstrate an earlier onset of illicit drug use than do those of other ethnic backgrounds (Johnston et al., 2001). In addition, there are increasing numbers of Mexican American males entering the juvenile justice system (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 2001).

These findings indicate a clear need for research on factors that support or undermine youth well-being in this population. In this study we focused on parental knowledge processes as one such factor, given the implications these processes have for youth well-being. To capitalize on the variability within this population, this study used an ethnic-homogeneous design to expand our understanding of parental knowledge processes to a Mexican American sample.

Parental Knowledge

In the literature there has been some debate regarding the terminology and measurement of parental knowledge. Parental knowledge is often referred to as parental monitoring. The term monitoring implies active tracking and surveillance (Dishion & McMahon, 1998) as opposed to what parents know about their children, but most of the research on “parental monitoring” actually measures parental knowledge, not active tracking and surveillance behavior (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). We use the term parental knowledge to refer to how much parents know about their children’s whereabouts, companions, and activities.

Extensive research has demonstrated that higher levels of parental knowledge are associated with more favorable adolescent outcomes. Specifically, more parental knowledge is associated with less adolescent risky behavior, including substance abuse, sexual activity, and police involvement, as well as better school performance (Crouter & Head, 2002; Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Waizenhofer et al., 2004). Much of this research on the positive associations of parental knowledge, however, comes from research conducted using European and European American samples.

The small body of research that has been conducted on parental knowledge in Mexican American families has found that parental knowledge is similarly associated with better adolescent outcomes in this population. For example, parental knowledge has been shown to be negatively associated with smoking, drug use, peer influence on drug use, drinking, delinquency, and depressive symptoms among Mexican American youth (Ramirez et al., 2004; Caldwell et al., 2006; Halgunseth et al., 2006; Bray et al., 2001; Gil-Rivas et al., 2003; Cota-Robles & Gamble, 2006; Tragesser et al., 2007). In addition, parental knowledge has been shown to be positively associated with academic success, academic motivation, and academic aspirations in this

population (Romo & Falbo, 1996; Plunkett & Bámaca-Gomez, 2003). The established link between parental knowledge and adolescent well-being emphasizes the importance of understanding this process in Mexican American families, including how parents acquire information about their adolescents.

Sources of Knowledge

There are a variety of ways in which parents may acquire information about their children (Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Crouter et al., 2005). Adolescents themselves may tell their parents about their experiences; this method is referred to as child self-disclosure. Parents may also acquire information about their adolescents by asking them questions, which is referred to in the literature as parental solicitation. Parents may also get information about their adolescents from other sources, including their spouse, their adolescent's siblings, or individuals outside of the family, such as neighbors or teachers. Each of these sources of knowledge must be examined in order to more fully understand the processes of parental knowledge acquisition in Mexican American families.

Little is known about the implications for youth adjustment of parents using these different sources to acquire knowledge. Researchers have found the use of child self-disclosure as a source of knowledge to be associated with positive outcomes, including lower adolescent delinquent behavior (Stattin & Kerr, 2000) but relying on others outside the family as a source of knowledge to be a problematic strategy associated with more adolescent problem behavior as compared to other sources (Crouter et al., 2005).

No known research has been conducted on sources of knowledge in Mexican American families. In general, studies have shown Mexican American parents to be more authoritarian (Varela et al., 2004), more protective, and to monitor their children more than non-Latino parents

(Halgunseth et al., 2006). Given their more authoritarian and protective style of parenting, Mexican American parents may rely on more active methods of acquiring knowledge, such as parental solicitation, than more passive methods such as child self-disclosure. Furthermore, Mexican American families are characterized as respecting parental authority, placing less importance on individual autonomy, and putting family solidarity first (Fuligni, 1998). This emphasis on family solidarity leads us to expect greater use of sources within the family, such as adolescents themselves, spouses, and siblings, than sources outside of the family. Given the variability of this population, however, it will also be important to look at which child and family characteristics are associated with levels of parental knowledge and the use of different sources of knowledge. One important potential correlate of parental knowledge and sources of knowledge is the quality of the parent-child relationship.

Parent-Child Relationships

When examining parent-child relationships, it is important to distinguish between the affective and temporal components, particularly if the goal is to intervene in family processes. Related to the affective component, close parent-child relationships have been associated with greater child self-disclosure and parental knowledge in European and European American samples (Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Knowledge acquired via child self-disclosure might be especially important, because disclosure is an indication of openness and trust in the relationship (Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Kerr, Stattin, & Trost, 1999). In contrast, knowledge acquired from sources outside the family may reflect less functional internal family processes if these external sources are seen by the parent as a last resort.

In addition to the affective component, there is also a temporal component of parent-child relationships (i.e., how much time children spend with their parents). We might expect parents

to be more knowledgeable about their children when they spend more time with them, because parents would be present to observe their children's activities, and joint activities lend themselves to conversation (Bumpus et al., 2006). Parents may also rely on different sources of knowledge when they spend more or less time with their children. For example, if parents spend more time with their adolescents, they may be more likely to get information through child self-disclosure, or by asking questions of them. In contrast, if parents spend less time with their adolescents, they may have to rely on sources other than adolescents themselves, such as siblings, spouses, or individuals outside of the family.

Given the potential associations between the affective and temporal components of parent-child relationships (Cota-Robles & Gamble, 2006), it is important to examine both properties of parent-child relationships together. By taking a multivariate approach, the present study was able to examine the unique contribution of each of these components as they relate to parental knowledge and the use of different sources of knowledge. No known research exists on the association between the affective and temporal components of parent-child relationships and sources of knowledge and knowledge in Mexican American families. However, we might expect similar associations to those found in European American families to be apparent in this population as well.

Gender

Research on sources of knowledge in European American families has demonstrated that mothers and fathers differ in the sources of knowledge they rely on and in how much they know about their daughters versus their sons (Waizenhofer et al., 2004; Crouter et al., 2005; Crouter et al., 1999). For example, as compared to fathers, mothers have been shown to rely more on the child as a source of knowledge, both through disclosure and solicitation, but fathers on average

rely more on their spouses as a source of knowledge than do mothers (Waizenhofer et al., 2004). In addition, mothers tend to know more than fathers, but, when they have children of both sexes, fathers know more about sons than daughters and mothers know more about daughters than sons (Crouter et al., 1999).

Research on Mexican American families has suggested gender differentiation in mothers' and fathers' parenting roles and in the socialization of daughters compared to sons (Rafaelli & Ontai, 2004; Azmitia & Brown, 2002; Valenzuela, 1999). Traditional Mexican American families tend to endorse "traditional" gender roles (Cota-Robles & Gamble, 2006), which include strong differentiation between males and females (Rodriguez, Ramirez, & Korman, 1999; Rafaelli and Ontai, 2004). This gender differentiation may result in differences in levels of parental knowledge, in the use of different sources of knowledge, and in the correlates of parental knowledge and sources of knowledge based on parent and child gender. For example, Mexican American families may see girls as more vulnerable, dependent, and in greater need of protection than boys (Cota-Robles & Gamble, 2006; Comas-Diaz, 1987), which may result in parents using more active methods, such as parental solicitation, in order to acquire knowledge about their daughters. In fact, Mexican American girls have reported more monitoring than boys from their mothers (Cota-Robles & Gamble, 2006), evidence of differential monitoring by gender. In addition, given the salience of gender traditionality in Mexican American families, we might also expect child gender to moderate the associations between parent-child relationship quality and parental knowledge and the use of different sources of knowledge. For example, given the closeness of mother-daughter relationships (Youniss & Smollar, 1985), we could expect mothers with good relationships with their daughters to know more about them compared to other dyads.

Acculturation

Acculturation, which is defined as “the process of adopting goals and practices due to exposure to a new culture” (Halgunseth et al., 2006, p. 1282) is an important process for Mexican Americans, and as mentioned previously, it is an important source of variability in this population. Research has demonstrated mixed findings on the association between acculturation and mental health (Rogler et al., 1991). However, positive links have been demonstrated between mothers’ levels of acculturation and adolescents’ risky behavior (Updegraff et al., 2006), suggesting that parental acculturation is an important construct to examine when studying Mexican American youth.

Given the associations between parental acculturation and adolescent outcomes and between parental knowledge and adolescent outcomes, we might also expect a relationship between parental acculturation and parental knowledge and the use of different sources of knowledge. Parental acculturation has been shown to be related to some parenting practices (Parke et al., 2004; Dumka et al., 1997), and therefore, we might also expect acculturation to be associated with parental knowledge and the sources of knowledge used by parents.

Language is an important element of acculturation. Language barriers, which are more common among less acculturated parents, may lead to less parental involvement (Fuligni & Yoshikawa, 2003; Plunkett & Bámaca-Gómez, 2003; López, 2001; Romo & Falbo, 1996), which may in turn influence the sources of knowledge parents use to acquire information about their adolescents. If less acculturated parents are less able to communicate with their children’s teachers or their friends’ parents, or to participate in activities in which their children are involved, they may become less involved in their children’s lives, and as a result, they may rely more heavily on their children’s siblings or their spouse for information.

Familism, which is defined as, “A cultural value that involves individuals’ strong identification with and attachment to their nuclear and extended families, and strong feelings of loyalty, reciprocity, and solidarity among members of the same family,” (Márin & Márin, 1991, p. 13) is an important element of Mexican culture, which may vary among Mexican Americans as they become more acculturated. Research has suggested that the importance of family and family solidarity is more salient in less acculturated families, and these values diminish with acculturation (Parke et al., 2004; Rodriguez et al., 2007; Fuligni, 1998). This importance of family in Mexican culture suggests that less acculturated Mexican American parents may be more likely to use sources of knowledge within the family (i.e., siblings and spouse) and less likely to use sources outside of the family as compared to those who are more acculturated.

In addition to directly affecting sources of knowledge and knowledge, parental acculturation may also have an impact on the associations between parent-child relationship quality and sources of knowledge and levels of knowledge. Given the salience of acculturation in Mexican American families and the importance of parent-child relationship quality, the combination of acculturation and relationship quality may also be important in determining how much parents know about their adolescents and how they acquire this information. For example, parents who have positive relationships with their children and who are less acculturated may be more likely to get their information from their children themselves, either through child self-disclosure or solicitation, than parents who are more acculturated and have poorer relationships with their children.

Sources of Knowledge Related to Levels of Knowledge

In European and European American samples, researchers have found different sources of knowledge to relate differently to parental knowledge. For example, child self-disclosure is

more strongly related to greater parental knowledge than are other sources of knowledge (Stattin and Kerr, 2000), and relying on sources outside of the family is associated with less knowledge than are other sources (Crouter et al., 2005). However, there is a lack of research linking sources of knowledge with knowledge in Mexican American families. It is important to understand these associations among this population to better understand these parental knowledge processes and their potential efficacy as targets for intervention efforts. Given the importance of parent-child relationships, child gender, and acculturation described above, it will also be important to discover if these variables impact the associations between the different sources of knowledge and knowledge. For example, the combination of a positive mother-child relationship and high child self-disclosure should result in higher maternal knowledge, and a less close mother-child relationship and low child self-disclosure should result in less knowledge, because we would expect both close relationships and child self-disclosure to be associated with greater parental knowledge.

Research Questions

Research has demonstrated the importance of parent-child relationships and both parent and child gender in determining the sources of knowledge parents use. Additional research has highlighted the significance of acculturation and family relationships in Mexican American families, but has not yet examined these constructs in relation to parental knowledge and sources of knowledge among this population. Taking a comprehensive approach that considers all of these possible sources of variation, this study addresses the following questions:

1. How similar or different are Mexican American mothers and fathers in their knowledge of their sons' and daughters' daily activities as well as in the ways in which they acquire knowledge of their sons' versus daughters' daily experiences?

2. How are Mexican American child and family characteristics, including mothers' and fathers' levels of acculturation, their relationships with their children, and their child's gender, associated with their knowledge of their adolescents' daily activities and the ways in which they acquire knowledge? Do the associations between parent-child relationship quality and sources of knowledge and levels of knowledge vary as a function of parental acculturation or adolescent gender?
3. How are the sources of knowledge used by Mexican American mothers and fathers related to their knowledge of their sons' and daughters' daily activities? Do these associations vary as a function of parental acculturation, adolescent gender, or the quality of parents' relationships with their adolescents?

METHOD

Participants

The data came from a study on Mexican-American families, specifically related to family socialization and adolescent development (McHale, Updegraff, Shanahan, Crouter, & Killoren, 2005; Updegraff, McHale, Whiteman, Thayer, & Delgado, 2005). In order to participate, families were required to have (1) a biological mother and a biological or long-term adoptive father who lived in the home (non-biological fathers had lived in the home for at least 10 years), (2) a mother of Mexican origin, (3) a non-disabled seventh grader and at least one older adolescent sibling who lived in the home, and (4) a father who worked at least 20 hours per week. The 246 participating families were recruited through schools in and around a Southwestern metropolitan area. An ethnic-homogeneous design was used to examine variation within this group of Mexican American families, but the sample for this study was not intended to be representative of Mexican American families in general.

Family contact information was acquired from junior high schools in five school districts and from five parochial schools, which represented a wide range of socioeconomic levels. Letters and brochures describing the study (in English and Spanish) were sent to 1,851 families with a non-disabled Hispanic seventh grader. Follow-up phone calls were made by bilingual staff to determine interest and eligibility. The contact information was incorrect for 438 families (24% of the original roster), making it impossible to locate them. Forty-two additional families (2.4%) moved between the initial screening and final recruitment, and 148 (8%) refused eligibility screening. Eligible families consisted of 421 families (23% of the initial roster; 32% of those screened for eligibility). Of the eligible families, 284 (67%) agreed to participate, 95 (23%) refused, and the remaining 42 families (10%) could not be contacted. Thirty-eight families agreed and were eligible, but did not complete interviews, leaving 246 families who completed interviews. In this paper sample sizes fluctuated slightly, between 236 and 244, because of missing data. In addition, these analyses did not include older siblings, because the data of interest were primarily available for younger siblings.

Characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 1. On average, mothers were 39 years old, fathers were just under 42 years old, and adolescents were just under 13 years old. Both mothers and fathers had completed about 10 years of education, on average. Just over 50% of the adolescents were female. The median family income was \$40,000, and just over 60% of adolescents participated in a free or reduced breakfast or lunch program at school. About 38% of adolescents were born outside of the U.S., and most adolescent interviews (84.15%) were conducted in English. In contrast, most parent interviews were conducted in Spanish (about 70% for both mother and father interviews).

Procedures

Data were collected through in-home interviews and telephone calls. During in-home interviews, parents and adolescents answered questions on personal qualities and family relationships. Bilingual interviewers conducted individual interviews in separate areas of the home, using laptop computers. Interviews lasted an average of 3 hours for parents and 2 hours for adolescents.

During the third and fourth weeks following the home interviews, bilingual interviewers telephoned families on 7 evenings (5 weekdays and 2 weekend days). On each day they were called, parents and adolescents reported on their activities from 5:00 pm to 5:00 pm and answered questions designed to ascertain how knowledgeable parents were about their adolescents' experiences on that specific day. Adolescents participated in all calls; parents participated in 4 calls each, with one call involving both mother and father. Families were paid \$100 for participating in the home interviews and another \$100 for participating in phone interviews.

Measures

All measures in the study were forward and back translated into Spanish (for the local Mexican dialect) following the procedures described by Foster and Martinez (1995). Final translations were reviewed by a Mexican American staff member and discrepancies were resolved. All variables were normally distributed, and no transformations were necessary.

Parental Knowledge was based on parent and adolescent agreement on adolescents' daily activities. Parents and adolescents separately answered 8 questions on each of 3 weekday phone calls, for a total of 24 knowledge items. The questions differed on each call so that parents could not prepare ahead of time. Parental knowledge items consisted of an initial question, which asked

whether an event had happened (e.g., “Did [adolescent] do anything fun with his/her friends today?”), and a follow-up question, which asked for details about the event (e.g., “What did he/she do?”). Parents received a score based on the agreement between their answers and their offspring’s answers. Higher scores reflected higher levels of parental knowledge. For each item, a score of 0 = parent and adolescent did not agree on the occurrence of an event; 1 = parent and adolescent agreed on the occurrence of an event, but not on the details; 2 = parent and adolescent agreed on the occurrence of an event, and the details (if applicable). A percentage of total possible points was computed such that if a parent-adolescent dyad had all 2s (accurate knowledge), their knowledge score would be 100%.

Sources of Knowledge were measured using several indices. First, an 11-item scale developed by Stattin and Kerr (2000) was used to measure parental solicitation and child self-disclosure. Six items were used to measure child disclosure (e.g., “How often does your [adolescent] tell you about how his/her day went without being asked?”), and five items were used to measure parental solicitation (e.g., “How often do you start conversations with your [adolescent] about his/her free time activities?”). Nine additional items were added by Crouter et al. (2005) to measure additional sources of knowledge. For three different scenarios (i.e., misconduct, school assignments, and free time), parents were asked how frequently they acquired information from one of three sources: spouse, sibling(s), or other sources outside of the family (teacher, neighbor, or friend). All items were rated on a five-point scale from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always). Items were averaged to create the different scales; higher scores indicate greater use of the source. Alpha reliabilities were satisfactory (i.e., child disclosure $\alpha = .78$ for mothers and $.76$ for fathers, parental solicitation $\alpha = .77$ for mothers and $.79$ for fathers,

spouse $\alpha = .90$ for mothers and $.87$ for fathers, siblings $\alpha = .87$ for mothers and $.86$ for fathers, and outside family $\alpha = .89$ for both mothers and fathers).

Parental Acceptance was measured using an 8-item subscale of the Child's Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) developed by Schaefer (1965) to indicate the positive emotional tone of the parent-adolescent relationship. Mothers and fathers responded to each of 8 statements (e.g., "I tell or show [adolescent] that I like him/her just the way he/she is") on a 5-point scale from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always). All 8 items were averaged to create the parental acceptance scale; higher scores indicate greater parental warmth/acceptance. Alpha reliabilities were good for both mothers ($\alpha = .82$) and fathers ($\alpha = .82$).

Parent-Adolescent Time Together was calculated based on information adolescents provided in the telephone interviews. During each of 7 phone calls, adolescents reported on with whom and for long they participated in 86 activities. Activities included household tasks (e.g., do dishes), home and personal activities (e.g., eat a meal or snack), involvement in athletic activities (e.g., participate on a sports team), toys, games, and computers (e.g., board games, puzzles, cards), outdoor activities (e.g., go for walk or hike), hobbies and activities (e.g., collect things), entertainment (e.g., watch sports on TV), visiting and hanging out (e.g., at a friend's or relative's house), and family care (e.g., care for a child). Time was calculated in minutes and data were summed across the 7 daily reports. For this study, we used an index of inclusive time with each parent, that is time during which other people may have been present along with the focal parent. Higher values reflect more time with parents. Adolescent reports were used to calculate the amount of time parents and adolescents spent together in order to include multiple reporters and reduce bias.

Acculturation was measured using the 30-item Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican

Americans –II (ARSMA-II) developed by Cuéllar, Arnold, and Maldonado (1995). This scale includes 17 items used to assess Mexican orientation (e.g., “I speak Spanish”) and 13 items used to assess Anglo orientation (e.g., “I like to identify myself as an American”). Mothers and fathers responded to all items on a 5-point scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely often or almost always). Separate means were computed for the Mexican orientation items and the Anglo orientation items. The mean of the Mexican orientation items was then subtracted from the mean of the Anglo orientation items to obtain an acculturation score that represents an individual’s score along a continuum from very Mexican oriented to very Anglo oriented, with higher scores indicating higher levels of acculturation. Alpha reliabilities were good for both the Mexican ($\alpha = .89$ for mothers and $\alpha = .91$ for fathers) and Anglo ($\alpha = .90$ for both mothers and fathers) orientation scales.

RESULTS

Descriptive Data on Mothers’ and Fathers’ Knowledge and Sources of Knowledge

Parental Knowledge. To explore the levels of knowledge of mothers and fathers, we conducted a 2 (parent) x 2 (youth gender) mixed model ANOVA on parental knowledge, in which parent was treated as a within groups factor and youth gender was treated as a between groups factor. It revealed a significant parent effect such that mothers knew more than fathers about their adolescents’ daily activities, $F(1, 234) = 70.70, p < .001$. The mean level of knowledge for mothers was 73.51 ($SD = 11.09$), and the mean level of knowledge for fathers was 64.10 ($SD = 14.36$). There was no significant difference as a function of child gender, and the parent x child gender interaction was not significant.

Sources of Knowledge. To explore the use of the different sources of knowledge, we conducted a 2 (parent) x 2 (youth gender) mixed model ANOVA in which parent and source of

knowledge were treated as within groups factors and gender was treated as a between groups factor. These analyses revealed significant parent, $F(1, 241) = 5.11, p < .05$, and source of knowledge differences, $F(4, 964) = 98.16, p < .001$. However, these main effects were qualified by significant interactions, including a significant source of knowledge x parent interaction, $F(4, 964) = 61.67, p < .001$, and a significant source of knowledge x youth gender interaction, $F(4, 964) = 3.21, p < .05$. To follow up these interactions, we examined both between and within effects. As can be seen in Table 2, follow-up analyses of the source x parent interaction revealed that mothers reported greater use of *parental solicitation* than the other sources, and that fathers reported greater use of the *spouse* as a source of knowledge compared to the other sources of knowledge. A second set of follow-up tests revealed that mothers reported greater use of *child disclosure* and *parental solicitation* compared to fathers, and fathers reported greater use of the *spouse* as a source of knowledge than did mothers. There were no significant mother-father differences in the use of *siblings* or *someone outside of the family* as sources of knowledge.

To follow up the source of knowledge x youth gender interaction, we collapsed across parents. The only significant youth gender difference between sources was in the use of an *individual outside of the family* as a source of knowledge. As can be seen in Table 3, parents relied more on those outside of the family to acquire knowledge about their sons than their daughters.

Bivariate Associations

In preliminary analyses, bivariate correlations were also calculated between all variables, including parent-child relationship characteristics, parental acculturation, sources of knowledge, and knowledge (see Table 4). These analyses revealed significant correlations between the two dimensions of parent-child relationship quality and sources of knowledge, as well as knowledge

levels of both mothers and fathers. Parental acceptance was positively associated with the use of child self-disclosure and parental solicitation for mothers, and with the use of all sources of knowledge, except for those outside the family, for fathers. Parent-adolescent time together was associated with the use of child self-disclosure and parental solicitation for both mothers and fathers, and additionally siblings as a source for fathers. These analyses also showed that parental acculturation was negatively associated with the use of siblings as a source of knowledge for both mothers and fathers, but was positively associated with the use of those outside of the family as a source of knowledge for fathers. Mothers were more likely to rely on self-disclosure and parental solicitation for daughters than sons, and fathers were more likely to rely on those outside of the family for sons than daughters.

For mothers, parental acceptance, parent-adolescent time together, and acculturation were positively associated with knowledge of their adolescents' daily activities, and relying on one's spouse was negatively associated with daily knowledge. For fathers, parent-adolescent time together and paternal solicitation were positively associated with daily knowledge. Regression analyses were then used to explore these associations and their interactions simultaneously.

Under What Conditions are Parents Knowledgeable?

Regression analyses were conducted using parental acceptance, the amount of time adolescents spent with their parents, parental acculturation, and youth gender to predict daily parental knowledge separately for mothers and fathers. Beginning with the results for mothers, these analyses (see Table 5) revealed that the more time adolescents spent with their mothers ($\beta = .13, B = .00, SE B = .00, p < .05$), and the more acculturated mothers were ($\beta = .13, B = 1.04, SE B = .49, p < .05$), the more mothers knew about their adolescents' daily activities. Maternal

acceptance was positively related to maternal knowledge only at a trend level, and child gender was not related to mothers' daily knowledge in these analyses.

Looking at predictors of paternal knowledge, we found that the more time adolescents spent with their fathers, the more fathers knew about their adolescents' daily activities ($\beta = .31, B = .01, SE B = .00, p < .001$), which was consistent with our expectations. Paternal acceptance, paternal acculturation, and child gender were not related to fathers' daily knowledge.

Under What Conditions do Parents Use Different Sources of Knowledge?

Similar regression analyses were conducted using parental acceptance, the amount of time adolescents spent with their parents, parental acculturation, and youth gender to predict the use of the different sources of knowledge separately for mothers and fathers. Table 6 displays results for variables predicting mothers' sources of knowledge. Both maternal acceptance ($\beta = .34, B = .43, SE B = .08, p < .001$) and maternal acculturation ($\beta = .13, B = .06, SE B = .03, p < .05$) were positively associated with the use of child self disclosure as a source of knowledge for mothers. The more accepting mothers were of their adolescents and the more acculturated mothers were, the more child self-disclosure mothers reported. Maternal acceptance ($\beta = .41, B = .48, SE B = .07, p < .001$) and the amount of time adolescents spent with their mothers ($\beta = .15, B = .00, SE B = .00, p < .05$) were positively associated with maternal solicitation. Higher quality mother-adolescent relationships, in terms of both acceptance and time together, were associated with greater maternal solicitation. In addition, consistent with our expectations, maternal acculturation was negatively associated with the use of siblings as a source of knowledge for mothers ($\beta = -.30, B = -.23, SE B = .05, p < .001$), indicating that mothers who were more acculturated were less likely to use their adolescents' siblings as a source of knowledge.

Table 7 shows the regression results predicting fathers' sources of knowledge. Consistent with our expectations, paternal acceptance ($\beta = .44, B = .56, SE B = .07, p < .001$) and the amount of time adolescents spent with their fathers ($\beta = .19, B = .00, SE B = .00, p < .01$) were both positively associated with the use of child self-disclosure. Similarly, paternal acceptance ($\beta = .41, B = .48, SE B = .07, p < .001$) and father-adolescent time together ($\beta = .15, B = .00, SE B = .00, p < .05$) were also positively associated with paternal solicitation. Higher quality father-adolescent relationships, in terms of both acceptance and time together, were characterized by more child self-disclosure to fathers and more paternal solicitation. Higher paternal acceptance was also associated with greater use of the spouse as a source of knowledge by fathers ($\beta = .17, B = .23, SE B = .08, p < .01$). However, the model predicting the use of the spouse as a source of knowledge was only significant at a trend level. Both components of the father-adolescent relationship, paternal acceptance ($\beta = .12, B = .22, SE B = .11, p < .05$) and the amount of time adolescents spent with their fathers ($\beta = .16, B = .00, SE B = .00, p < .01$), were positively associated with the use of siblings as a source of knowledge, and consistent with our expectations, paternal acculturation was negatively associated with the use of siblings as a source of fathers' knowledge ($\beta = -.24, B = -.17, SE B = .04, p < .001$). The better relationships fathers had with their adolescents and the less acculturated fathers were, the more likely fathers were to use their adolescents' siblings as a source of knowledge. Paternal acculturation ($\beta = .20, B = .17, SE B = .05, p < .01$) and child gender ($\beta = .16, B = .41, SE B = .16, p < .05$) were positively associated with the use of someone outside of the family as a source of knowledge for fathers. Fathers were more likely to use someone outside of the family as a source of knowledge when they were more acculturated, as expected, and more so for sons than daughters.

Potential Combinative Effects

In addition to examining the main effects to predict parental knowledge and the use of different sources of knowledge for both mothers and fathers, we also conducted regression analyses with interaction terms to examine whether or not the associations between parent-child relationship characteristics and knowledge and the use of different sources of knowledge varied as a function of parental acculturation or youth gender. In addition, we examined whether there was an interaction effect between parental acceptance and the amount of time adolescents spent with their parents. All main effects used in the previous analyses (parental acceptance, time together, acculturation, and gender) plus the five interactions (parental acceptance x acculturation, parental acceptance x gender, time together x acculturation, time together x gender, and parental acceptance x time together) were included together in regression models to predict parental knowledge and each source of knowledge separately. Out of all of the interactions examined, however, very few were significant, suggesting that they may have emerged by chance. However, given the paucity of research in this area on Mexican American samples, the few significant findings may be important and provide novel information on this sample and thus are described here.

In predicting mothers' knowledge of adolescents' daily activities, a significant interaction was found between maternal acceptance and the amount of time adolescents spent with their mothers ($\beta = -.16$, $B = -.01$, $SE B = .00$, $p < .05$). As shown in Figure 1, follow-up analyses revealed that the association between the amount of time adolescents spent with their mothers and mothers' knowledge of their adolescents' daily activities was significant when mothers reported low acceptance of their adolescents ($\beta = .35$, $B = .01$, $SE B = .00$, $p < .01$), but not when the relationship was more accepting ($\beta = .02$, $B = .00$, $SE B = .00$, $n.s.$). Specifically, for

mothers who were low in acceptance, the more time they spent with their adolescents, the more they knew about their daily activities. In contrast, mothers who were high in acceptance knew quite a bit about their adolescents' daily activities regardless of how much time their adolescents spent with them.

When predicting mothers' use of spouse as a source of knowledge, regression analyses revealed a significant interaction between the amount of time adolescents spent with their mothers and adolescent gender ($\beta = -.26, B = -.00, SE B = .00, p < .01$). As seen in Figure 2, follow-up analyses revealed that the association between the amount of time adolescents spent with their mothers and mothers' use of their spouse as a source of knowledge was positive and significant for girls ($\beta = .18, B = .00, SE B = .00, p = .05$), but negative and only significant at a trend level for boys ($\beta = -.18, B = -.00, SE B = .00, p = .06$). When adolescent girls spent more time with their mothers, their mothers relied more on their spouse as a source of knowledge, but when adolescent boys spent more time with their mothers, their mothers were less likely to rely on their spouse as a source of knowledge.

A significant interaction between paternal acceptance and paternal acculturation was found when predicting paternal solicitation ($\beta = -.12, B = -.10, SE B = .05, p < .05$). As shown in Figure 3, follow-up analyses revealed that when fathers were low in acceptance of their adolescents, the more acculturated fathers were, the more they relied on solicitation as a source of knowledge ($\beta = .22, B = .10, SE B = .04, p < .05$). When fathers were high in acceptance, however, they relied highly on solicitation as a source of knowledge, regardless of their level of acculturation ($\beta = -.04, B = -.02, SE B = .04, n.s.$).

Associations between Sources of Knowledge and Levels of Parental Knowledge

In order to examine how the use of each of these different sources of knowledge relates to how much parents knew about their adolescents' daily activities, regression analyses were conducted on each source of knowledge. To be consistent with previous analyses, parental acceptance, the amount of time adolescents spent with their parent, parental acculturation, and youth gender were controlled for in each regression. Results for mothers appear in Table 8 and those for fathers are shown in Table 9. Across all the analyses, the only source of knowledge to significantly predict parental knowledge was spouse as a source of knowledge for mothers ($\beta = -.14, B = -1.26, SE B = .58, p < .05$). Using a spouse as a source of knowledge was negatively associated with mothers' knowledge of adolescents' daily activities, indicating that the more a mother relied on her spouse as a source of knowledge, the less she knew about her adolescent's daily activities. None of the other sources of knowledge examined was associated with daily knowledge for mothers or fathers. The positive association between paternal solicitation and knowledge for fathers that was apparent in the bivariate correlations was non-significant in the multivariate regression analyses.

Interaction terms were then added to examine whether or not the associations between the different sources of knowledge and levels of knowledge varied as a function of parental acceptance, the amount of time adolescents spent with their parents, parental acculturation, or youth gender. Few significant interactions emerged, however. Again, although they may be important to understanding parental knowledge processes in Mexican American families, they should be interpreted with caution, and replication will be important.

A significant interaction between maternal disclosure and maternal acceptance emerged ($\beta = -.15, B = -3.59, SE B = 1.60, p < .05$). As shown in Figure 4, follow-up analyses revealed

that there was a positive association between maternal acceptance and maternal knowledge, but only for mothers who reported low child self-disclosure ($\beta = .20, B = 3.86, SE B = 1.55, p < .05$). For mothers who reported low child self-disclosure, the more accepting they were of their adolescents the more they knew about daily activities. There was not a significant association between maternal acceptance and maternal daily knowledge for mothers who reported high child self-disclosure ($\beta = -.06, B = -1.23, SE B = 2.01, n.s.$).

A significant interaction between maternal solicitation and the amount of time adolescents spent with their mothers also emerged ($\beta = -.27, B = -.01, SE B = .00, p < .001$). As seen in Figure 5, follow-up analyses demonstrated that there was a significant positive association between parent-adolescent time together and maternal knowledge when mothers reported low parental solicitation ($\beta = .45, B = .01, SE B = .00, p < .001$). For mothers who did not ask their adolescents a lot of questions, the more time they spent with their adolescents, the more they knew about their daily activities. When mothers asked their adolescents a lot of questions, there was no association between the amount of time they spent with their adolescents and their daily knowledge ($\beta = -.10, B = -.00, SE B = .00, n.s.$). No significant interactions including sources of knowledge emerged for fathers.

DISCUSSION

In sum, findings from this study demonstrated that Mexican American mothers and fathers differed in their knowledge of their adolescents' daily activities as well as in how they acquired this knowledge. Specifically, mothers knew more and relied more on child self-disclosure and parental solicitation than did fathers, whereas fathers relied more on their spouse than did mothers. Parent-child relationship characteristics were particularly important correlates of daily parental knowledge and sources of knowledge, especially for fathers. The amount of

time parents and adolescents spent together was related to more knowledge and more solicitation for both mothers and fathers and additionally to child self-disclosure and the use of siblings as a source of knowledge for fathers. Parental acceptance was positively related to child self-disclosure and parental solicitation for both parents, and additionally to the use of spouses and siblings as a source of knowledge for fathers. Acculturation was negatively related to the use of siblings as a source of knowledge for both parents, but positively related to child self-disclosure for mothers and the use of sources outside of the family for fathers. Additionally, acculturation was associated with greater maternal knowledge. Finally, aside from the negative association between mothers' use of their spouse as a source of knowledge and daily knowledge in the regression analyses, the sources of knowledge examined in this study were not related to parents' daily knowledge in this sample.

Given the lack of data on Mexican American families, this research made an important contribution to understanding family processes in Mexican American families, specifically those related to parental knowledge. Overall, this study demonstrated the prevalence of parent gender differentiation in parental knowledge processes among Mexican American families, the importance of parent-child relationship quality, both in time together and parental acceptance, and the salience of acculturation in parental knowledge processes. In addition, this study revealed that the sources of knowledge used by mothers and fathers may not be strongly linked to how much parents know about their adolescents' daily activities.

Gender Differentiation

Parent gender differentiation was demonstrated in both the levels of parental knowledge and the use of different sources of knowledge. Additionally, further analyses indicated some different correlates of knowledge and sources of knowledge for mothers and fathers. These

findings expand the existing literature on parent gender differentiation in Mexican American families (Rafaelli & Ontai, 2004) to include parental knowledge processes. Somewhat inconsistent with previous literature on Mexican American families, which also suggests differentiation between daughters and sons in family processes (Rafaelli & Ontai, 2004; Azmitia & Brown, 2002; Valenzuela, 1999), this study revealed only two instances of differentiation by child gender, one main effect and one interaction. As a main effect, parents relied more on sources outside of the family for sons than for daughters. This finding is consistent with the literature on differential parenting by child gender in Mexican American families. Specifically, Rafaelli and Ontai (2004) found that respondents discussing family socialization processes reported greater access to privileges for males. Perhaps the greater reliance on those outside of the family to acquire knowledge about sons reflects this increased privilege for sons, which allowed them to spend more time outside of the family, and therefore led parents to rely more on outside sources to acquire knowledge about their sons' daily activities.

An interaction was also found between mother-adolescent time together and child gender in predicting mothers' use of their spouse as a source of knowledge. Specifically, mothers relied more on their spouse when they spent more time with their daughters, but when they spent less time with their sons. Given that Mexican American families may see girls as more vulnerable, dependent, and in greater need of protection than boys (Cota-Robles & Gamble, 2006; Comas-Diaz, 1987), mothers' reliance on their spouse when they spend more time with their daughters may be an example of their overprotection of their daughters. In contrast they may find it satisfactory to either spend time with their sons or get information about them from their spouse. The lack of additional findings related to differentiation by child gender suggests that parental

knowledge processes are not as differentiated by child gender as are other family processes in Mexican American families.

Parent-Adolescent Relationships

This study showed parent-adolescent relationship qualities to be important predictors of parental knowledge and the use of different sources of knowledge. The temporal component of parent-adolescent relationships (i.e., the amount of time parents and adolescents spent together) was shown to be a stronger predictor of parental knowledge than the affective component (i.e., parental acceptance) for fathers. As demonstrated in previous research (Bumpus et al., 2006), this finding may indicate that fathers who spend more time with their adolescents know more about their daily activities, because they are present during more of these activities.

For mothers, regression analyses revealed that both parent-child time together and maternal acceptance explained unique variance and were similarly important in predicting maternal knowledge. Interaction results indicated that high maternal knowledge may result from either high time or high acceptance. There was not an additive effect, but instead high acceptance appeared to counteract low time together and still result in high knowledge, and vice versa. The combination of low time and low acceptance was associated with the least amount of maternal knowledge.

Overall, both the affective and temporal components of parent-child relationship quality were better predictors of sources of knowledge that involve direct interaction between parents and their adolescents (i.e., child self-disclosure and parental solicitation) than sources of knowledge that involve others besides a parent and his or her adolescent (i.e., the use of a spouse, sibling, or someone outside of the family as a source of knowledge). This was the case for both mothers and fathers. It seems logical that parent-child relationships would have a

greater impact on direct parent-child interaction, given that interpersonal interactions are part of what makes up relationships. However, other variables must also play a role in parents' use of sources of knowledge that do not involve direct interaction between parents and children. For example, it may be the case that parents' relationships with their spouses, their adolescents' siblings, and those outside of the family are more strongly associated with using these individuals as sources of knowledge than are parent-child relationship qualities.

Parental Acculturation

In addition to parent-child relationship quality, parental acculturation also played a salient role in predicting parental knowledge and sources of knowledge. Higher levels of maternal acculturation were associated with greater maternal knowledge and more child self-disclosure to mothers, but these findings did not hold for fathers. Research has demonstrated that children are often exposed to American culture to a greater extent than their parents through activities with peers and school, and therefore children often acculturate faster than their parents (Szapocznik & Hernandez, 1988; Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1980). Mothers who are more acculturated may then be better able to communicate with their more acculturated adolescents and follow what is going on in their lives, thereby increasing their parental knowledge and allowing for greater child self-disclosure.

Results also indicated greater use of siblings and less use of those outside of the family as sources of knowledge when parents were less acculturated. Given the prevalence of familism in Mexican culture (Márin & Márin, 1991), these findings could be explained by stronger familism in less acculturated families (Sabogal et al., 1987). If the importance of family, including heavier reliance on family members, is more salient when parents have a stronger orientation towards Mexican culture, it would be logical that parents would rely more on sources within the

family (i.e., their adolescents' siblings) and less on sources outside of the family when they are less acculturated and vice versa.

A significant interaction was also found between acceptance and acculturation for fathers when predicting paternal solicitation. Specifically, less accepting fathers were more likely to ask their adolescents questions when these fathers were more acculturated. It may be the case that if familism decreases when families become more acculturated, fathers who are less accepting of their adolescents may need to play a more active role in acquiring knowledge about their children through asking them questions about their daily activities. Put together, the acculturation findings in this study indicate that family processes, specifically those related to parental knowledge and sources of knowledge, are different for parents who are more versus less acculturated, suggesting the importance of examining parental acculturation when studying family processes in Mexican American families.

Predicting Parental Knowledge: Relationships versus Sources

Analyses predicting parental knowledge highlighted the importance of parent-child relationship quality, especially the amount of time adolescents spent with their fathers, over the actual sources of knowledge in determining how much parents knew about their adolescents' daily activities. The only source of knowledge to predict daily knowledge as a main effect in the regression analyses was the use of one's spouse as a source of knowledge for mothers, and the use of this source was associated with less parental knowledge. Using one's spouse as a source of knowledge may be an indication that these mothers are unable to acquire information about their adolescents on their own, and therefore must rely on their spouse as a result of this low level of daily knowledge. Alternatively, mothers may know less when they rely on their spouses, because fathers know less than mothers, as shown in the descriptive analyses.

Two parallel interactions also emerged when predicting parental knowledge from sources of knowledge. Across both interactions, higher quality parent-child relationships resulted in more knowledge only when mothers reported either less solicitation or less child self-disclosure. Higher quality parent-child relationships appeared to make up for lower use of these sources to acquire knowledge of adolescents' daily activities, further indicating the importance of parent-child relationships over sources of knowledge in predicting parental knowledge among this sample.

The overall lack of associations between sources of knowledge and levels of knowledge was apparent in the bivariate correlations as well as in the regression models. This lack of association may indicate that how parents acquire their knowledge is not as important for their actual knowledge in this sample of Mexican American families. Alternatively, there may be other sources of knowledge besides the five sources examined in this study that may influence how much parents know about their adolescents' daily activities. One possibility could be the role of the extended family. Given the importance of family among Mexican Americans, acquiring knowledge through extended family members may be particularly important for daily knowledge among this sample. In addition, the sources of knowledge examined in this study may be more strongly associated with overall family knowledge, combined across parents, than individual parents' knowledge, as was examined in this study. Additionally, mothers' sources could impact fathers' knowledge, and fathers' sources could impact mothers' knowledge. Or different combinations of sources used by mothers and fathers could impact cumulative family knowledge. For example, family knowledge may be greatest when both mothers and fathers acquire their information from their adolescents through child self-disclosure.

Along with theoretical explanations for the lack of associations between sources of knowledge and levels of knowledge, the null findings may be the result of the methods used in this study. Specifically, the measure of parental knowledge used in this study was a measure of daily knowledge over the course of three days, not an overall rating of knowledge by parents or children, as is typically used in the field (Stattin and Kerr, 2000), whereas the sources of knowledge measures was a more global rating, referring to the past year. In addition, data on the use of different sources of knowledge came from parents only, whose reports may differ from those of their adolescents, and therefore may be inaccurate.

Implications for Interventions

Altogether, it will be important to consider the findings from this study when aiming to intervene and modify parenting practices, specifically those related to parental knowledge, in order to improve the well-being of Mexican American adolescents. Previous research in both European and Mexican American samples has highlighted the importance of parental knowledge for adolescent well-being (Crouter & Head, 2002; Ramirez et al., 2004; Caldwell et al., 2006; Halgunseth et al., 2006; Bray et al., 2001; Gil-Rivas et al., 2003; Cota-Robles & Gamble, 2006; Romo & Falbo, 1996; Plunkett & Bámaca-Gomez, 2003). Results from this study suggest that interventions aimed at improving parent-child relationships, through both increasing parent-child time together and parental acceptance for mothers, and especially through increasing the amount of time fathers spend with their adolescents, might increase parental knowledge among Mexican American families, and in turn improve adolescent well-being. Given the differences found in mothers' and fathers' levels of knowledge and correlates of knowledge, this study highlights the importance of targeting mothers and fathers separately for interventions related to increasing parental knowledge.

Limitations and Future Directions

In addition to the methods mentioned above, this study is also limited by its cross-sectional design. Using data at only one time point, we are unable to determine the direction of the associations found in this study. Future research should use a longitudinal design in order to learn more about the direction of the effects and to examine whether these parental knowledge processes stay the same or change over time. Longitudinal research could also specifically examine how these processes change as parents become more acculturated over time. In addition, researchers should examine the extended family as a source of knowledge among Mexican American families and look at the combined knowledge of both parents as well as the interactions between mothers' and fathers' use of different sources of knowledge as they are associated with individual and combined parental knowledge. Adolescents' reports of parents' use of different sources of knowledge should also be collected to see if there are discrepancies between parent and adolescent report, which may highlight possible inaccuracies. A more global measure of parental knowledge, as has been used in previous research on parental knowledge (Stattin and Kerr, 2000), should also be used, and findings should be compared to those found in this study using the daily measure of knowledge. Finally, given the novelty of these findings, replication in other samples of Mexican American families will also be important.

Overall, this study has added to the literature on parental knowledge processes by examining these family processes in Mexican American families, a largely understudied population. This study has indicated that parental acculturation and parent-child relationships play important roles in parental knowledge processes and should be carefully considered in future research on Mexican American families. Findings from this study and future research will

also be important when developing interventions aimed at reducing problem behavior among Mexican American youth.

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APPENDIX A

TABLES

Table 1

Participant Characteristics

Characteristic	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%
Age			
Mother	39.0	4.63	
Father	41.7	5.77	
Adolescent	12.8	.58	
Parents' Education			
Mother	10.3	3.74	
Father	9.9	4.37	
Family Income	\$53,184	\$45,382	
Adolescent Gender			
Female			51
Male			49
Reduced/Free Breakfast/Lunch			61.79
Adolescents Born Outside U.S.			37.80
Interview in Spanish			
Mother			66.26
Father			67.76
Adolescent			15.85

Table 2

Means and SD for Sources of Knowledge for Mothers and Fathers (N = 244)

Variables	Mothers		Fathers	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Child Disclosure	3.71 ^a	.71	3.41 ^b	.75
Parental Solicitation	4.02 ^c	.66	3.82 ^d	.71
Spouse	3.22 ^e	1.23	4.31 ^f	.79
Sibling	3.49 ^g	1.12	3.59 ^g	1.05
Someone Outside the Family	2.92 ^h	1.33	2.77 ^h	1.25

Note: Means within and between parents with different letters are significantly different at $p < .05$.

Table 3

Means and SD for Sources of Knowledge for Daughters and Sons (N = 244)

Variables	Daughters		Sons	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Child Disclosure	3.61 ^a	.62	3.49 ^a	.54
Parental Solicitation	3.95 ^b	.51	3.88 ^b	.48
Spouse	3.77 ^c	.76	3.75 ^c	.76
Sibling	3.59 ^a	.87	3.49 ^a	.83
Someone Outside the Family	2.73 ^d	1.06	2.96 ^e	.95

Note: Means within and between daughters and sons with different letters are significantly different at $p < .05$.

Table 4

Correlations between Study Variables (N = 244¹)

Variables	Acceptance	Time	Acculturation	Gender	Disclosure	Solicitation	Spouse	Sibling	Outside Family	Knowledge
Acceptance	.23***	.13*	-.05	.00	.35***	.43***	.11	.06	-.02	.13*
Time	-.02	.73***	.04	-.26***	.17**	.24***	.04	.09	.05	.13*
Acculturation	-.03	-.00	.78***	-.06	.13*	.08	-.09	-.28***	.01	.13*
Gender ²	.05	.01	-.08	1.00	-.14*	-.15*	.01	-.10	.06	.04
Disclosure	.44***	.18**	.05	-.02	.27***	.46***	.16*	.10	.07	.08
Solicitation	.48***	.13*	.06	.05	.58***	.05	.11	.18**	.17**	.03
Spouse	.17**	.03	-.07	-.05	.23***	.23***	.08	.54***	.30***	-.13*
Sibling	.13*	.16*	-.25***	.01	.24***	.16*	.39***	.23***	.44***	-.12
Outside Family	.08	.09	.15*	.13*	.20**	.14*	.18**	.43***	.23***	-.03
Knowledge	.05	.31***	.03	.06	.11	.13*	-.06	.11	.07	.12

Note: Correlations for mothers appear above the diagonal, correlations for fathers appear below the diagonal, and correlations between mothers and fathers appear on the diagonal.

* $p \leq .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

¹ *Ns* range from 239 – 246 due to missing data; 244 was the most common *N*.

² Gender is coded 0 = female, 1 = male.

Table 5

Summary of Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Mothers' and Fathers' Knowledge of Adolescents' Daily Experiences
(*N* = 237)

	Mothers' Daily Knowledge			Fathers' Daily Knowledge		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Parental Acceptance	2.30	1.30	.12 [†]	1.34	1.50	.06
Parent-Child Time Together	.00	.00	.13*	.01	.00	.31***
Acculturation	1.04	.49	.13*	.34	.60	.03
Gender	1.80	1.47	.08	1.75	1.80	.06
<i>R</i> ²		.05			.10	
<i>F</i>		3.26*			6.60***	

Note: Gender is coded 0 = female, 1 = male.

[†]*p* < .10. **p* < .05. ***p* < .01. ****p* < .001

Table 6

Summary of Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Mothers' Sources of Knowledge (N = 238)

	Child Disclosure			Parental Solicitation			Spouse			Sibling			Outside Family		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Parental Acceptance	.43	.08	.34***	.48	.07	.41***	.23	.14	.11	.07	.12	.03	-.10	.15	-.04
Parent-Child Time Together	.00	.00	.09	.00	.00	.15*	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	.07	.00	.00	.08
Acculturation	.06	.03	.13*	.04	.03	.08	-.09	.06	-.10	-.23	.05	-.30***	.00	.06	.00
Gender	-.17	.09	-.12 [†]	-.14	.08	-.10 [†]	-.01	.17	-.00	-.17	.14	-.08	.27	.18	.10
<i>R</i> ²	.17			.23			.02			.10			.01		
<i>F</i>	11.58***			17.60***			1.42			6.40***			.81		

Note: Gender is coded 0 = female, 1 = male.

[†]*p* < .10. **p* < .05. ***p* < .01. ****p* < .001

Table 7

Summary of Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Fathers' Sources of Knowledge (N = 239)

	Child Disclosure			Parental Solicitation			Spouse			Sibling			Outside Family		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Parental Acceptance	.56	.07	.44***	.56	.06	.47***	.23	.08	.17**	.22	.11	.12*	.11	.13	.05
Parent-Child Time Together	.00	.00	.19**	.00	.00	.13*	.00	.00	.03	.00	.00	.16**	.00	.00	.09
Acculturation	.03	.03	.06	.04	.03	.08	-.03	.03	-.06	-.17	.04	-.24***	.17	.05	.20**
Gender	-.04	.09	-.03	.07	.08	.05	-.07	.10	-.04	-.02	.13	-.01	.41	.16	.16*
<i>R</i> ²	.23			.25			.04			.10			.07		
<i>F</i>	17.16***			19.52***			2.13 [†]			6.36***			4.51**		

Note: Gender is coded 0 = female, 1 = male.

[†] $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Table 8

Summary of Regression Analyses for Sources of Knowledge Predicting Mothers' Knowledge (N = 237)

	Child Disclosure			Parental Solicitation			Spouse			Sibling			Outside Family		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Source	.15	1.10	.01	-1.27	1.25	-.07	-1.26	.58	-.14*	-1.03	.67	-.10	-.35	.55	-.04
Parental Acceptance	2.24	1.36	.11 [†]	2.92	1.41	.15*	2.59	1.27	.13*	2.37	1.27	.12 [†]	2.27	1.27	.12 [†]
Parent-Child Time Together	.00	.00	.13*	.00	.00	.14*	.00	.00	.14*	.00	.00	.14*	.00	.00	.14*
Acculturation	1.03	.50	.13*	1.09	.50	.14*	.93	.49	.12 [†]	.80	.52	.10	1.04	.49	.13*
Gender	1.82	1.49	.08	1.64	1.48	.07	1.79	1.46	.08	1.63	1.47	.07	1.90	1.48	.09
<i>R</i> ²		.05			.06			.07			.06			.06	
<i>F</i>		2.60*			2.82*			3.60**			3.10**			2.69*	

Note: Gender is coded 0 = female, 1 = male.

[†]*p* < .10. **p* < .05. ***p* < .01. ****p* < .001

Table 9

Summary of Regression Analyses for Sources of Knowledge Predicting Fathers' Knowledge (N = 237)

	Child Disclosure			Parental Solicitation			Spouse			Sibling			Outside Family		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Source	.72	1.34	.04	1.52	1.45	.08	-1.38	1.15	-.08	.91	.89	.07	.24	.74	.02
Parental Acceptance	.93	1.68	.04	.47	1.71	.02	1.64	1.52	.07	1.14	1.52	.05	1.16	1.52	.05
Parent-Child Time Together	.01	.00	.30***	.01	.00	.30***	.01	.00	.31***	.01	.00	.30***	.01	.00	.31***
Acculturation	.32	.61	.03	.28	.61	.03	.28	.61	.03	.49	.62	.05	.35	.62	.04
Gender	1.78	1.80	.06	1.64	1.80	.06	1.65	1.80	.06	1.76	1.80	.06	1.80	1.83	.06
<i>R</i> ²		.10			.11			.11			.11			.10	
<i>F</i>		5.32***			5.50***			5.57***			5.49***			5.36***	

Note: Gender is coded 0 = female, 1 = male.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

APPENDIX B

FIGURES

Figure 1

Interaction of Mother-Adolescent Time Together and Maternal Acceptance Predicting Maternal Knowledge

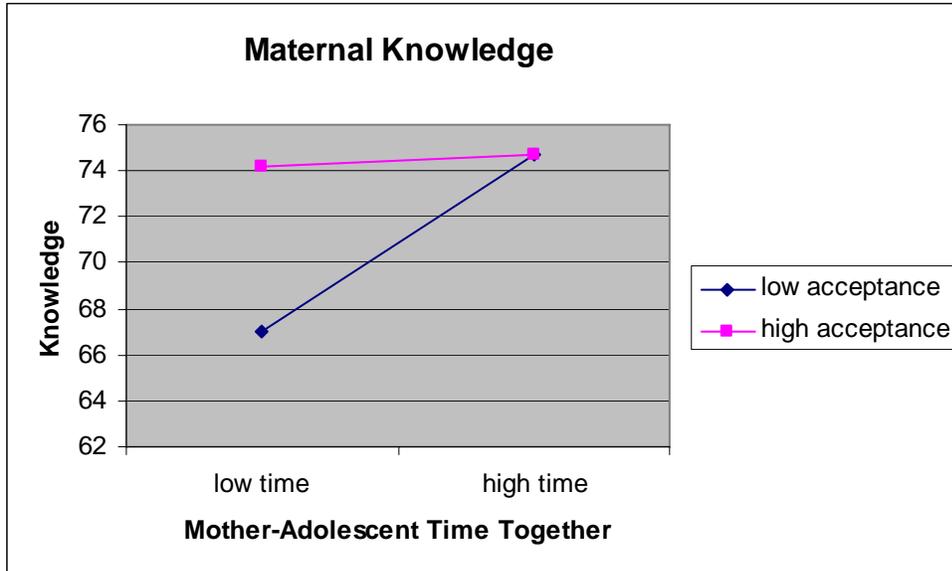


Figure 2

Interaction of Mother-Adolescent Time Together and Adolescent Gender Predicting Use of Spouse as a Source of Knowledge

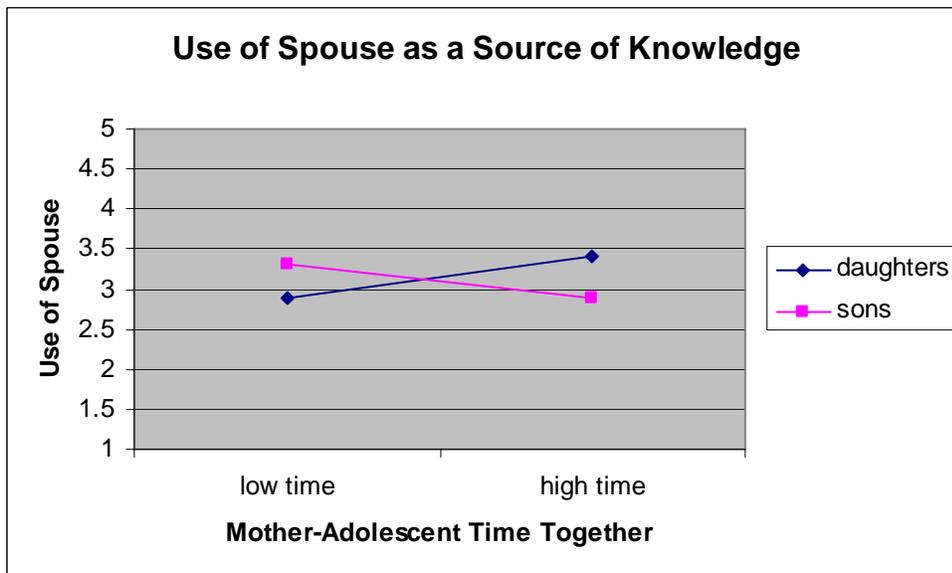


Figure 3

Interaction of Paternal Acculturation and Paternal Acceptance Predicting Paternal Solicitation

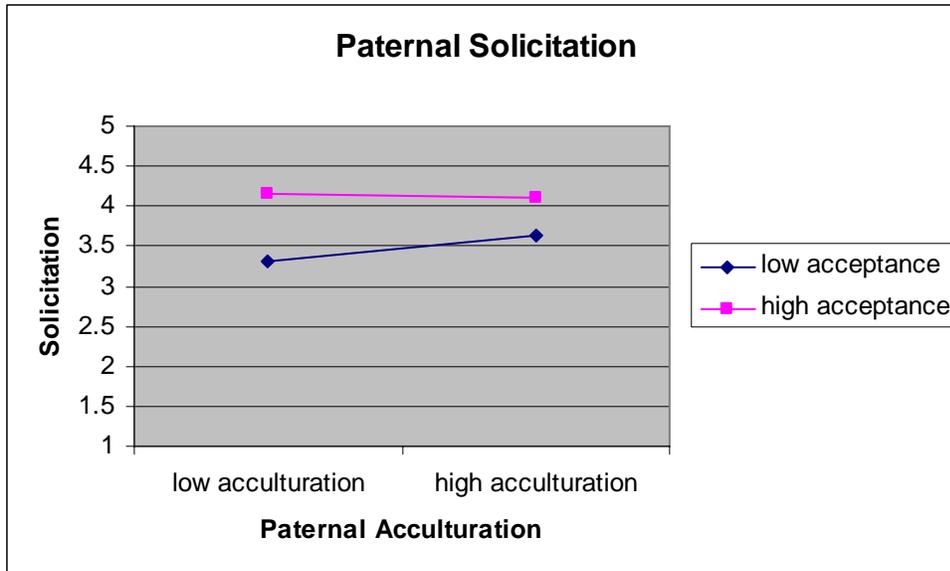


Figure 4

Interaction of Maternal Acceptance and Child Self-Disclosure Predicting Maternal Knowledge

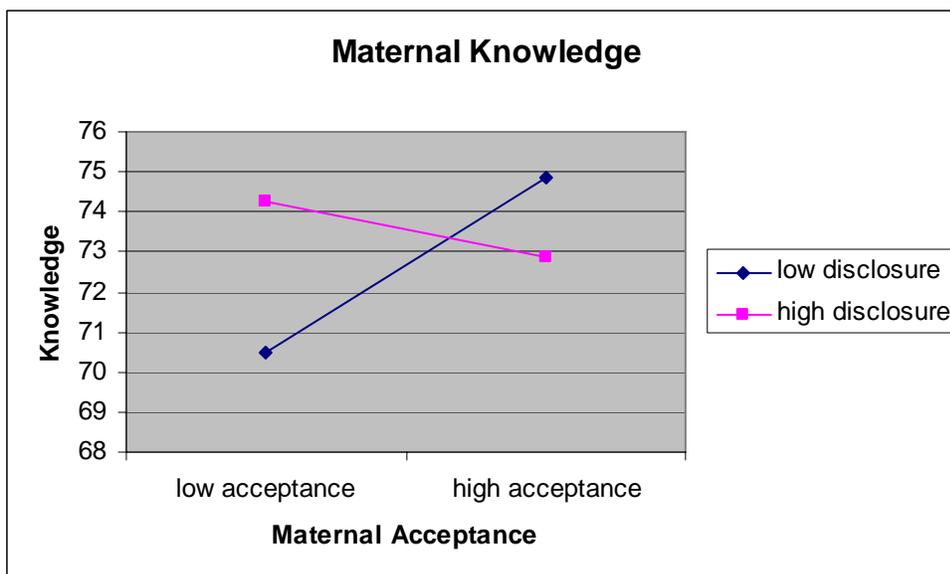


Figure 5

Interaction of Mother-Adolescent Time Together and Maternal Solicitation Predicting Maternal Knowledge

